# Chapter 3 Basic differential algebra

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Throughout this chapter we assume that all domains have characteristic 0.

## 3.1 Differential rings and fields

**Definition 3.1.1:** Let *R* be a commutative ring with unity 1. A *derivation* ' is a map from *R* to *R* such that for all  $r, s \in R$  we have

$$(r+s)' = r' + s'$$
 and  $(rs)' = r's + rs'$ .

*R* together with its derivation is called a *differential ring*.

The second equation is called the "Leibnitz rule". Observe:  $1' = (1 \cdot 1)' = 1' + 1'$ , so 0 = 1'

**Lemma 3.1.2:** Let the differential ring R be an integral domain. Then the derivation ' extends uniquely to the quotient field of R.

*Proof:* Suppose we can extend the derivation ' to K. Take a non-zero  $a \neq 0$ ; then

$$0 = 1' = (a \cdot a^{-1})' = a \cdot (a^{-1})' + a' \cdot a^{-1} ,$$
  
so  $(a^{-1})' = \frac{-a'}{a^2} .$ 

This implies that for  $b \neq 0$ ,

$$\left(rac{a}{b}
ight)'=rac{ba'-ab'}{b^2}$$
 . (\*)

In fact, (\*) defines a derivation on K.  $\Box$ 

**Definition 3.1.3:** Let *R* be a differential ring.

- (a) Since  $1' = (1^2)' = 2 \cdot 1 \cdot 1'$ , 1' = 0. Also 0' = 0. Thus the set  $C_R = \{c | c \in R, c' = 0\}$  forms a subring with unity of R, the ring of constants of R.
- (b) If the differential ring R is actually a field, then R is called a *differential field*. In this case  $C_R$  is a subfield of R, the *field of constants*.

**Remark 3.1.4:** If *n* is a positive integer, we can prove by induction that

$$(a^n)' = n \cdot a^{n-1} \cdot a'$$
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From the proof of Lemma 3.1.2 we conclude that this property holds for all integers n.

**Example 3.1.5:** Consider the field M of meromorphic functions on  $\mathbb{C}$ ; i.e., functions which are analytic everywhere except at possibly finitely many isolated singularities which must be poles (limit  $\pm \infty$ ).

 $C_M$  is obviously  $\mathbb{C}$ ; but we will be interested in differential subfields of M with possibly smaller fields of constants.

- (a)  $\mathbb{Q}$ : this is the smallest subfield of M. The only derivation on  $\mathbb{Q}$  is the trivial one, with a' = 0 for all  $a \in \mathbb{Q}$ . So  $C_{\mathbb{Q}} = \mathbb{Q}$ .
- (b)  $\mathbb{Q}(x)$ : the field of rational functions in x with ' = d/dx is a differential field. The derivative of x is 1, but we would also get a differential field by setting x' = 2.
- (c) Q(x, exp(x)): exp(x) is transcendental over Q(x). Notice that this field also contains cosh(x) = (exp(x) + 1/exp(x))/2. Antiderivatives may lie outside the field. But something more problematic may happen. E.g., ∫(exp(x)/xdx cannot be written even as a "closed form expression", i.e., cannot be found in a Liouville extension of the field.

Now let us consider extensions of a differential field, both algebraic and transcendental.

**Theorem 3.1.6:** Let K be a differential field and  $K(\vartheta)$  an algebraic extension of K. Then the derivative ' of K extends uniquely to a derivation on  $K(\vartheta)$ .

*Proof:* Let  $m(x) \in K[x]$  be the minimal polynomial of  $\vartheta$ ; i.e., m(x) is irreducible and  $m(\vartheta) = 0$ . So

$$m(\vartheta) = m_n \vartheta^n + \cdots + m_0 = 0$$
, with  $m_n \neq 0$ .

Consequently also  $m(\vartheta)' = 0$ ; i.e.,

$$\begin{array}{ll} m(\vartheta)' &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} (m'_{i} \vartheta^{i} + i \cdot m_{i} \vartheta^{i-1} \vartheta') + m'_{0} \\ &= \vartheta' (\sum_{i=1}^{n} i \cdot m_{i} \vartheta^{i-1}) + \sum_{i=0}^{n} m'_{i} \vartheta^{i} \\ &= 0 \ . \end{array}$$

So we get

$$\vartheta' = \frac{-\sum_{i=0}^{n} m'_{i} \vartheta^{i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} i \cdot m_{i} \vartheta^{i-1}} .$$

The denominator is non-zero, because *m* is minimal for  $\vartheta$ .

An algebraic extension of the differential field K might contain new constants. For example,  $\mathbb{Q}(x)(y)$  with  $y^4 - 2x^2 = 0$  contains  $\sqrt{2}$  (and  $-\sqrt{2}$ ), since for  $t = y^2/x$  we have  $t^2 = 2$ .

**Theorem 3.1.7:** Let K be a differential field and  $K(\vartheta)$  a transcendental extension of K. Then  $\vartheta' = \eta$  induces a derivation on  $K(\vartheta)$  for any  $\eta \in K(\vartheta)$ .

*Proof:* Let  $a(\vartheta) = a_n \vartheta^n + \cdots + a_0$  be an arbitrary element of  $K[\vartheta]$ . Define

$$a(\vartheta)' := a'_n \vartheta^n + \sum_{i=1}^n (a'_{i-1} + i \cdot a_i \eta) \vartheta^{i-1}$$

Then ' is a derivation on the ring  $K[\vartheta]$ . Since  $K(\vartheta)$  is the quotient field of  $K[\vartheta]$ , Lemma 3.1.2 yields the result.

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**Example 3.1.5 (cont.):** Both (b) and (c) are applications of Theorem 3.1.7. In (b) we extend by a transcendental element,  $\vartheta = x$ , and we choose  $\eta = 1$ . In (c) we extend by a transcendental element,  $\vartheta = \exp(x)$ , and we choose  $\eta = \vartheta$ .

Whenever we write  $K \subseteq L$  for two differential fields we shall mean K to be a differential subfield of L.

**Theorem 3.1.8:** Let  $K \subseteq L$  be differential fields and let  $\vartheta \in L$  such that  $\vartheta' \in K$ . If there is no element  $\eta$  in K s.t.  $\vartheta' = \eta'$ , then  $\vartheta$  is transcendental over K and for the fields of constants we have  $C_{K(\vartheta)} = C_K$ .

*Proof:* Suppose  $\vartheta$  is algebraic over K; i.e., there exists a monic irreducible polynomial (the minimal polynomial)

$$m(x) = x^{n} + m_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + m_{0} \in K[x]$$

s.t.  $m(\vartheta) = 0$ . Therefore

$$m(\vartheta)' = (n\vartheta' + m'_{n-1})\vartheta^{n-1} + \cdots = 0$$
.

Since m(x) is minimal,  $n\vartheta' + m'_{n-1} = 0$ , or  $\vartheta' = -m'_{n-1}/n \in K$ , contradicting our assumption.

Now we prove that  $\mathcal{K}(\vartheta)$  contains no new constants. First, assume

$$c = c_n \vartheta^n + \cdots + c_0 \in K[\vartheta], \quad n > 0 \text{ and } c_n \neq 0$$

is a new constant; i.e.,

$$c' = c'_n \vartheta^n + (nc_n \vartheta' + c'_{n-1}) \vartheta^{n-1} + \cdots = 0$$
.

Since  $\vartheta$  is transcendental,  $c_n'=0=nc_n\vartheta'+c_{n-1}',$  hence

$$\vartheta' = \frac{-c'_{n-1}}{nc_n} = \frac{-nc_nc'_{n-1} + c_{n-1}nc'_n}{n^2c_n^2} = \left(\frac{-c_{n-1}}{nc_n}\right)'$$

But this contradicts our assumption.

Finally, suppose  $f(\vartheta)/g(\vartheta)$  is a new constant, where  $f, g \in K[\vartheta]$ ,  $\deg(g) \ge 1$ , and  $\gcd(f, g) = 1$ , g monic. Then we have

$$\left(\frac{f(\vartheta)}{g(\vartheta)}\right)' = \frac{f(\vartheta)'g(\vartheta) - f(\vartheta)g(\vartheta)'}{g(\vartheta)^2} = 0 ,$$

and therefore  $f(\vartheta)/g(\vartheta) = f(\vartheta)'/g(\vartheta)'$ . But  $\deg(g(\vartheta)') < \deg(\vartheta)$ , which is impossible since f/g is in reduced form.

**Remark 3.1.9:** Using this theorem we see that the logarithmic part of the integral of a rational function is transcendental.

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**Definition 3.1.10:** differential field extension  $K \subset L$ ;  $\vartheta \in L \setminus K$ .

- (a) If there exists an  $\eta \in K$  s.t.  $\vartheta' = \eta$  we call the extension  $K(\vartheta)$  an extension of K by an *integral*, and we call  $\vartheta$  *primitive* over K. We write  $\vartheta = \int \eta$ .
- (b) If  $\vartheta' = \frac{\eta'}{\eta}$  for some  $\eta \in K \setminus \{0\}$ , then we call  $K(\vartheta)$  an extension of K by a *logarithm* and write  $\vartheta = \log \eta$ . Obviously, extensions by logarithms are extensions by integrals.
- (c) If  $\frac{\vartheta'}{\vartheta} = \eta$  for some  $\eta \in K$ , we call  $K(\vartheta)$  an extension of K by an *exponential of an integral*. We write  $\vartheta = \exp(\int \eta)$ .
- (d) If  $\frac{\vartheta'}{\vartheta} = \eta'$  for some  $\eta \in K$ , we call  $K(\vartheta)$  an extension of K by an *exponential* and we write  $\vartheta = \exp \eta$ . Obviously, extensions by exponentials are extensions by exponentials of integrals.
- (e)  $\vartheta$  is *elementary* over K if
  - $-\vartheta$  is algebraic over K, or
  - $-\vartheta = \log \eta$  for some  $\eta \in K$ , or
  - $-\vartheta = \exp \eta$  for some  $\eta \in K$ .
- (f)  $\vartheta$  is an (elementary) monomial over K if  $\vartheta = \log \eta$  or  $\vartheta = \exp \eta$  for some  $\eta \in K$  and  $\vartheta$  is transcendental over K with  $C_{K(\vartheta)} = C_K$ .

**Definition 3.1.11:** Let  $K \subseteq L$  be a differential field extension. *L* is an *elementary extension* or *Liouville extension* of *K* if there are  $\vartheta_1, \ldots, \vartheta_n$  in *L* s.t.  $L = K(\vartheta_1, \ldots, \vartheta_n)$  and  $\vartheta_i$  is elementary over  $K(\vartheta_1, \ldots, \vartheta_{i-1})$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .

L is a *regular* elementary extension of K if L is an elementary extension of K, and all the intermediate transcendental extensions are extensions by elementary monomials.

We say that  $f \in K$  has an elementary integral over K if there exists an elementary extension E of K and  $g \in E$  s.t. g' = f. An elementary function is an element of an elementary extension of  $(\mathbb{C}, d/dx)$ .

**Example 3.1.12:** We shall take the liberty of nesting extensions by simply listing them, so for example

$$K(\exp\eta_1,\log\eta_2) = (K(\exp\eta_1))(\log\eta_2)$$
.

(a) Q(x, exp(x), log(exp(x) + 1), exp(x)<sup>2/3</sup>) is a regular elementary extension of Q(x). But we cannot prove this here.
(b) Q(x, exp(x), exp(2x + 1)) is an elementary extension of Q(x). But it is not regular, since

$$\exp(2x+1) / \exp(x)^2 = \exp(1)$$
,

and thus a new transcendental constant is introduced.

(c) Q(x, log(x), exp(log(x)/3)) is not an extension by a monomial of Q(x, log(x)), because

$$\exp(\log(x)/3) = x^{1/3}$$

is algebraic over this field.

Without proof we quote the strong version of Liouville's Theorem on integration. This theorem can be found in [Bro97] as Theorem 5.5.3, where it is fully proved.

**Theorem 3.1.13 (Liouville's Theorem – strong version):** Let K be a differential field, C the field of constants of K, and  $f \in K$ . If there exists an elementary extension E of K and  $g \in E$  s.t. g' = f, then there are  $v \in K$ ,  $c_1, \ldots, c_n \in \overline{C}$ , and  $u_1, \ldots, u_n \in K(c_1, \ldots, c_n)^*$  such that

$$f = v' + \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \frac{u'_i}{u_i}$$

So if f has an elementary integral over K, then  $\int f$  is something in K plus a sum of logarithms.

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### 3.2 Differential polynomials

The following definitions and facts can be found in Chapter 1 of [Ritt50].

**Definition 3.2.1:** Let (R,') be a differential ring. Consider the polynomial ring in infinitely many variables

$$R\{y\} = R[y^{(0)}, y^{(1)}, y^{(2)}, \ldots] = R[y, y', y'', \ldots] .$$

The derivation ' on R can be extended to the following derivation  $\delta$  on  $R\{y\}$ :

$$\delta\left(\sum_{i}a_{i}y^{(i)}\right)=\sum_{i}(a_{i}'y^{(i)}+a_{i}y^{(i+1)}).$$

So  $(R\{y\}, \delta)$  is a differential ring, the ring of differential polynomials over R. We call y a differential variable. Often we also write ' for  $\delta$ .

Similarly, this construction can be extended to several indeterminates. In this case there may be several derivations. The differential ring is called *ordinary* if it is equipped with only one derivation.

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**Definition 3.2.2:** Let  $(R, \delta)$  be an ordinary differential ring. An ideal *I* of *R* is called a *differential ideal* iff *I* is closed under the derivation  $\delta$ ; i.e., for all  $a \in I$  we have  $\delta(a) \in I$ . Let *B* be a set of differential polynomials in *R*. The *differential ideal generated by B*, denoted by [B], is the ideal generated by all elements in *B* and their derivatives. The *radical differential ideal generated by B*, denoted by  $\{B\}$ , is the radical of [B].

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**Example 3.2.3:** Consider the differential ring  $R = \mathbb{Q}[x]$  with the usual derivation '. Then the ring of differential polynomials in y over R contains, for example, the differential polynomials

$$p(y) = 3xy''' - (2x^2 + 5)y' - 7, \quad q(y) = (2x^3 + x - 1)y'' + 3x^2y.$$

The derivation of p is

$$p'(y) = 3xy^{(4)} + 3y''' - (2x^2 + 5)y'' - 4xy'.$$

Observe that  $R\{y\}$  is a non-Noetherian ring. The ideal

$$\langle y, y', y'', \ldots \rangle$$

does not have a finite basis. But as a differential ideal  $[y, y', y'', \ldots]$  it has a finite basis, namely it can be written as [y].

**Definition 3.2.4:** Let *I* be a differential ideal in the differential ring  $R = (K\{y\}, \delta)$ , where *K* is a differential field. Let *L* be a differential extension field of *K*. An element  $\xi \in L$  is called a zero of *I* iff for all  $p(y) \in I$  we have  $p(\xi) = 0$ . The *defining differential ideal* of  $\xi$  in *R* is  $\{p(y) \in R \mid p(\xi) = 0\}$ . A point  $\xi \in L$  is called a *generic zero* of *I* iff *I* is the defining differential ideal of  $\xi$  in *R*.

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**Remark 3.2.5:** In commutative algebra every prime ideal in  $K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  has a generic zero in a suitable extension of K. Similarly in differential algebra every prime differential ideal has a generic zero in a suitable differential extension of K. For example, the prime differential ideal generated by

$$y'^2+3y'-2y-3x\in\mathbb{Q}(x)\{y\}$$

has the generic zero  $((x + c)^2 + 3c)/2$ , where c is a transcendental constant. The corresponding differential equation

$$y'^2 + 3y' - 2y - 3x = 0$$

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has the general solution  $y(x) = ((x + c)^2 + 3c)/2$ .

#### 3.3 Linear differential operators

**Definition 3.3.1:** Let  $(R, \delta)$  be a differential integral domain;  $\delta$  is also written as '. We consider the non-commutative *ring of linear differential operators*  $R[\partial]$ , where the rule for the multiplication of  $\partial$  by an element of  $r \in R$  is

$$\partial r = r\partial + r'$$
.

The *application* of an operator  $A = \sum_{i=0}^{m} a_i \partial^i$  to an element of the differential ring  $r \in R$  is defined as

$$A(r)=\sum_{i=0}^m a_i r^{(i)} \ .$$

Here  $r^{(i)}$  denotes the *i*-fold application of ' to r.

If  $a_m \neq 0$ , the order of A is m and  $a_m$  is the *leading coefficient* of A.

The application of *A* can naturally be extended to the quotient field *K* of *R*, and to any field extension of *K*. If  $A(\eta) = 0$ , with  $\eta$  in *R*, *K* or any extension of *K*, we call  $\eta$  a *root* of the linear differential operator *A*.

Note that  $\partial r$ , which denotes the operator product of  $\partial$  and r, is distinct from  $\partial(r)$ , the application  $\partial$  to r, namely r'. The application of an operator a of order 0, i.e. an element a of R considered as an operator, to  $r \in R$  is  $a(r) = a \cdot r$ .

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**Proposition 3.3.1.** For  $n \in N$ :  $\partial^n r = \sum_{i=0}^n {n \choose i} r^{(n-i)} \partial^i$ .

Proof: For n = 0 this obviously holds. Assume the fact holds for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then

$$\partial^{n+1}r = \partial(\partial^{n}r) = \partial(\sum_{i=0}^{n} {n \choose i}r^{(n-i)}\partial^{i}) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} {n \choose i}\partial r^{(n-i)}\partial^{i} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} {n \choose i}[r^{(n-i)}\partial + r^{(n-i+1)}]\partial^{i} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} {n \choose i}r^{(n-i)}\partial^{i+1} + \sum_{i=0}^{n} {n \choose i}r^{(n-i+1)}\partial^{i} = \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} {n \choose i-1}r^{(n+1-i)}\partial^{i} + \sum_{i=0}^{n} {n \choose i}r^{(n-i+1)}\partial^{i} = {n \choose n}r^{(0)}\partial^{n+1} + \sum_{i=1}^{n}[{n \choose i-1} + {n \choose i}]r^{(n+1-i)}\partial^{i} + {n \choose 0}r^{(n+1)}\partial^{0} = \sum_{i=0}^{n+1} {n+1 \choose i}r^{(n+1-i)}\partial^{i}.$$

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From a linear homogeneous ODE f(y) = 0, with  $f(y) \in R\{y\}$ , we can extract a linear differential operator A = O(f) such that the given ODE can be written as

$$A(y)=0,$$

in which y is regarded as an unknown element of R, K or some extension of K. Such a linear homogeneous ODE always has the trivial solution y = 0; so a linear differential operator always has the trivial root 0.

In [Chardin:91] it is stated that  $K[\partial]$  is left-Euclidean, and a few brief remarks are provided by way of proof.

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Since the concept of a left-Euclidean ring is not as widely known as that of Euclidean ring, it may be helpful to recall its definition here.

**Definition 3.3.2.** A (potentially non-commutative) ring R is left-Euclidean if there exists a function  $d : R^* \to \mathbb{N}$  such that for all a, b in R, with  $b \neq 0$ , there exist q and r in R such that a = qb + r, with d(r) < d(b) or r = 0.

It follows from the left-Euclidean property that every left-ideal  $_{\kappa}I$  of the form  $_{\kappa}I = (A, B)$  is principle, and is generated by the right-gcd of A and B. As remarked in [Chardin:91], any linear differential operator of positive order has a root in some extension of K. We state this result precisely.

**Theorem 3.3.3. (Ritt-Kolchin).** Assume that the differential field K has characteristic 0 and that its field C of constants is algebraically closed. Then, for any linear differential operator A over K of positive order n, there exist n roots  $\eta_1, \ldots, \eta_n$  in a suitable extension of K, such that the  $\eta_i$  are linearly independent over C. Moreover, the field  $K\langle \eta_1, \ldots, \eta_n \rangle$  contains no constant not in C.

This result is stated and proved in [Kolchin:48b] using results from [Kolchin:48a] and [Ritt:32]. The field  $K\langle \eta_1, \ldots, \eta_n \rangle$  associated with *A* is known as a *Picard-Vessiot extension* of *K* (for *A*). Henceforth assume the hypotheses of Theorem 3.3.3.

It follows from Theorem 3.3.3 that if the operators  $A, B \in K[\partial]$ have a common factor F of positive order on the right, i.e.,

$$A = \overline{A} \cdot F$$
, and  $B = \overline{B} \cdot F$ , (3.1)

then they have a non-trivial common root in a suitable extension of K. For by Theorem 3.3.3 F has a root  $\eta \neq 0$  in an extension of K. We have  $A(\eta) = \overline{A}(F(\eta)) = \overline{A}(0) = 0$  and similarly  $B(\eta) = 0$ .

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On the other hand, if A and B have a non-trivial common root  $\eta$ in a suitable extension of K, we show that they have a common right factor of positive order in  $K[\partial]$ . Let F be a nonzero differential operator of lowest order s.t.  $F(\eta) = 0$ . Then F has positive order. Because the ring of operators is left-Euclidean, F is unique up to multiplication of non-zero elements of K. This F is a right divisior of both A and B. To see this, apply division in the left-Euclidean ring  $K[\partial]$ :

$$A = Q \cdot F + R,$$

with the order of *R* less than the order of *F*, or R = 0. Apply both sides of this equation to  $\eta$ :

$$A(\eta) = (Q \cdot F)(\eta) + R(\eta).$$

Since  $A(\eta) = 0$  and  $F(\eta) = 0$ ,  $R(\eta) = 0$ . Therefore, by minimality of F, R = 0. Hence F is a right divisor of A. We see that F is a right divisor of B similarly. We summarize our result in the following theorem. **Theorem 3.3.4.** Assume that K has characteristic 0 and that its field of constants is algebraically closed. Let A, B be differential operators of positive orders in  $K[\partial]$ . Then the following are equivalent:

- (i) A and B have a common non-trivial root in an extension of K,
- (ii) A and B have a common factor of positive order on the right in  $K[\partial]$ .

In the following chapter we will investigate the existence of a non-trivial factor, and we will see that (3.1) is equivalent to the existence of a non-trivial order-bounded linear combination

$$CA + DB = 0 , \qquad (3.2)$$

with  $\operatorname{order}(C) < \operatorname{order}(B)$  and  $\operatorname{order}(D) < \operatorname{order}(A)$ , and  $(C, D) \neq (0, 0)$ . This will lead to the concept of a differential resultant.

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# Thank you for your attention!



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